SOME NEW ROOKS.

The Philippines.

In a small quarto volume of some five hundred pages, entitled, The Philippine Islands and Their People, the Macmillans have published a record of personal observation and experience together with a summary of the more important facts in the annals of the archipelago. The author, Prof. DEAN C. WORCESTER of the University of Michigan, spent eleven months in the Philippine archipelago in 1887-88, and in 1890 visited the islands a second time and remained there two years and eight months. The author had exceptional opportunities of acquiring information, having spent some time in every one of the larger islands, and having mingled with all classes of the people, from the highest Spanish officials to the wildest savages. The comprehensive knowledge that he thus secured will be found set forth in the book before us, which he has prefaced with a brief account of the principal in the history of the archipelago. After a glance at the place which the Philippines have occupied in history, we shall direct attention to the chapters in which the author describes what he saw in the two larger falands, Luzon and Mindanao

Something, perhaps, should first be said about the archipelago from a climatological point of view. The Philippines extend from 4° 25 to 21° north latitude. Lying, as they do. wholly within the tropics, a hot climate is to be expected in all of them; but since they extend rough some sixteen degrees of latitude, it follows that the intensity of the heat varies considerably in different parts of the group. No one city can be taken as typical of the whole archipelago, but as the only place where con tinuous temperature records have been kept is the Jesuit observatory at Manila, our autho has had to content himself with the statistics at that point. By averaging the re aults of observations extending over a period of thirteen years he finds that the mean annua temperature at Manila is 80° Fahrenheit. The thermometer almost never rises above 100° in the shade, nor does it fall below 60°. There Is no month in the year during which it not rise at least once as high as 91°. The mean monthly temperature ranges from 77° December and January to 84° in May. It should also be mentioned that, during much of the time, the air is heavily charged with moistur , which renders the heat doubly trying. In De omber, January and February the nights are fairly cool, but during the hot season little relief is obtainable from one week's end to another. Malaria is prevalent is some of the islands, notably in Mindoro, Balabac and portions of Palawan, Mindanao and Luzon; on the other hand, there are many localities entirely free from it. As to the effect of the climate upon white men, Prof. Worcester sums up the facts as follows: If one is permanently situated in a good locality, where he can secure suitable food and good drinking water; if he is scrupulously careful as to his diet, avoids excesses of all kinds, keeps out of the sun in the middle of the day and refrains from severe and long-continued physical exertion, he is likely to remain well, assuming, of course, that he is fortunate

Our author knew an old Spaniard who, at the end of a residence of thirty-nine years in the Philippines, was able to boast that he had not been ill a day. On the other hand, the explorer, the engineer, the man who would fell timber. cultivate new ground, or, in other ways, develop the resources of the country, is pretty certain to contract malarial fever, of which there are sevother, every third day, and a third daily. If taken in hand promptly and energetically, any of these fevers may be taken off, but the much dreaded calentura perniciosa is a very malignant disease, running its course in a few hours. and frequently terminating in black vomit and death. Luckily, "la perniciosa" is limited to certain localities, and the places where it is known to exist are shunned by natives and whites alike. In a number of it has been shown that the malaria to remediable causes. Sulu, before the time of Gen. Arolas, was centre. By improving the drainage of the town, however, and by filling in low places with coral sand he succeeded in stamping out the disease almost completely Still more striking results were obtained Tataan in Tawi Tawi by an officer who had orked under Gen. Arolas in Sulu. After the primeval forest had been cleared away for half mile around the blockhouse, and the ground had been thoroughly cleaned up, fever almost completely disappeared. Malaria and digestive troubles aside, the health of the colony is fairly good, and the danger from epidemic discomparatively slight. The plague has never gained a hold upon the Philippines. The soil of many of the Islands is described

enough to escape malarial infection.

by this first-hand observer as astonishingly fertile. Year after year crops are taken from the same piece of ground without thought of enriching it artificially. The productive area is by no means limited to the valleys and bottom Some of the most valuable crops grow particularly well on the mountain side. The value of the forest products is incalculable. Fine woods, useful for cabinet making or ouilding, are abundant; the nips palm furmishes a valuable material for thatching and houses, and from the sap obtained by cutting off its blossom stalk a strong alcohol of excellent quality is readily obtained; there are many varieties of that most useful of plants. bamboo; the hard, outer wood of the Palma brava resists the action of water indefinitely. and the trunks are used not only for conduct ing streams of fresh water, but for piles under wharves; rattan of excellent quality is one of the important forest products, and is useful in ways; in addition, there are guttapercha, dammar, cinnamon, wax, and gums of various sorts. Our author also bears witness to the fact that the mineral wealth of the slands is great, although it has never been developed. Gold exists in paying quantities in Luzon and Mindanao, while valuable deposits of iron and other minerals have long been There are extensive lignite beds in Cebu and Mindoro, and petroleum has been found in the former island. We scarcely need add that hitherto the lack, not only of railroads. but of roads of any description, has impeded communication and transportation.

It is well known that Magellan, in the memerable voyage the outcome of which was the first circumnavigation of the globe, discovered the Ladrone Islands on March 16, 1520. They were named "Robber Islands," from the fact that the natives proved adroit thieves, even going so far as to steal a boat from one of the ships. After a short stay in this group, Magelan continued on his westward course and next reached the north coast of Mindanao. After aking possession of that island in the name of the King of Spain, the explorer proceeded to ebu, and formed an offensive and defensive alliance with its King. In pursuance of the sompact, he entered into a war against the enemies of this chief, and on April 25, 1521, per-shed in a skirmish on the little island of Mactan. It is well known that a part of his comrades, after making other discoveries and suffering many vicissitudes, ultimately arrived in spain by the route around the Cape of Good Rone. Although, after the return of Magellan's sompanions, two more expeditions to the Philippines was organized by the Emperor Charles V., the value of the islands seems to have been for a time unappreciated. The first serious attempt to take actual possession of them was made under Philip II., in whose honor they had been named. To this end four ships and a frigate were made ready on the coast of Mex-The commander of the expedition, Legaspi, landed at Cebu on April 27, 1565, and took possession of the town. The pacification of this and neighboring islands was proceeding steadily enough when the Portuguese arrived and set up a claim to them. In 1570 Legaspi's grandson, Salcedo, was sent to subdue Lugon. He disembarked near the site of Manila and the territory now included in the province of Batangas was soon subdued, as was the island of Mindoro, and communication was established with Legaspi, who was subjugating Pathere declared that city the capital of the archipelago and the King of Spain the sovereign of the whole group. The method of subduing refractory tribes adopted by Salcedo has been followed more or less closely by his successors up to the present day. It consisted in allowing the conquered people to be governed by their own chiefs so long as the latter acknowledged the sovereignty of the Spanish King. It was not alone by the Portuguese that the

Spaniards were disturbed in their possession

death one Limahong, a Chinese pirate, brought

a formidable fleet of sixty-two armed junks to attack Manila, and forced his way within the

the Philippines. Shortly after Legaspi's

walls of the citadel itself, but was finally repulsed. Subsequently he landed on the west coast of Luzon and organized a settlement at the mouth of the Agno River. Eventually, however, a strong force was sent against him, and he was compelled to leave the archipelago About the same time began the long series of dissensions between Church and State which have continued to disturb the peace of the colony up to the present day. Supremacy was claimed by both civil and ecclesiastical author ities and so much trouble arose that the Bishop of Manila despatched a priest to Spain with instructions to lay the whole matter before the King. This appeal to the sovereign resulted in the publication of an important decree which provided in detail for the conduct of affairs in the Philippines. By this organic law, which may be regarded as the basis of the system of government hitherto pursued tribute was to be levied upon the natives, and the sum thus raised was to be divided in a definite ratio between the Church, the treas ury and the army. Import and export duties were also established, as well as fixed stipend for all soldiers and State employees. The fortifications of Manila were to be improved, hos pitals were to be founded, four penitentiaries were to be placed at suitable points, and it was further ordained that a number of well-armed war vessels should be kept in commission to repel attacks from without. An important feature of this decree was a provision that all the slaves of the colonies should be set free within a specified time, and that no one should be enslaved in future. Money was provided for the erection of a cathedral, the number of Augustinian friars was increased by forty, and the wandering mendicant friars who had previously infested the colonies were suppressed Meanwhile, the only communication between Spain and the Philippines was to be by way of Mexico, and the colony was to be dependent for additional troops, for manufactured goods of all descriptions, and even for money, on the galleons which arrived at long intervals from Acapulco.

III.

At the beginning of the seventeenth century the hostilities between the Spanish and the Dutch extended to the Philippines. The Hollanders not infrequently sent strongly armed ressels to capture the Mexican treasure ships. thereby inflicting heavy losses upon the colonies. Prof. Worcester says that a detailed account of the naval engagements which took place in Philippine waters at this period would fill a volume. At one time a formidable Dutch fleet arrived off Manila Bay at a time when the Governor was ill prepared to repel an attack. and had the advantage been pressed the capital might have been taken and the history of the Philippines been changed. Delay enabled the Spaniards to concentrate their resources and they eventually routed the Dutch fleet in the battle of Playa Honda. Though reprisals followed, the Dutch never succeeded in effecting a permanent lodgment in the Philippines They captured, however, a Spanish colony in Formosa, but were themselves driven out of that island by the Chinese twenty years later. After half a century of strife ceased to molest the Spaniards and concentrated their energy on the development of their own East Indian possessions, which lay urther south. For some years afterward the only causes of disturbance in the Philippines were the dishonesty of officials and the incessant dissensions between Church and State.

An event of importance in the history of the archipelago was the first massacre of Chinese. It seems that, at the time of the Manchu invasion of China in the first half of the seventeenth century, a mandarin named Kuseng retired to the island of Kinuen, but, finding his communication with the mainland cut off, turned his attention to Formosa, on which there were, at the time, Dutch settlements, Twenty-eight hundred Europeans were attacked by about a hundred thousand Chinese and forced to surrender. Kuseng then bethought himself of the Philippines, and despatched a Dominican missionary to demand from their Governor the payment of tribute un der penalty of attack. In 1062 this envoy. named Riccio, arrived at Manila, but mean while inflammatory letters from Formosa had reached some of the Chinese at the Philippine capital, and the Governor, learning the fact, secused them of conspiracy. All his available forces were concentrated and, when everything was ready, the Chinese were incited to rebel and a general massacre followed. Some of the Chinese, however, escaped to Formosa, and Kuseng prepared to take vengeance on the Spaniards, but died of fever before his plans could be carried out.

In 1761 war was declared by Great Britain

against Spain, and a fleet was despatched

inder Admiral Cornish, with orders to take Manila. On Sept. 22, 1762, the vessels arrived pefore the city, and land forces were disembarked. The Spanish garrison, though inerior to the English in numbers, made a stout resistance, and 5,000 native recruits came to ts support. The city ultimately fell, but the terms of capitulation arranged with the Archbishop of Manila provided for freedom in the exercise of religion as well as for the security of private property and assured free trade to all the inhabitants of the island, together with the maintenance of the powers of the Spanish Supreme Court. An indemity of \$4,000,000 was exacted. The surrendered territory included the whole archipelago, but the English never occupied more than that part of Luzon which lay immediately around Manila. The peace of Paris, concluded in February, 1783, provided for the evacuation of the town, and the Spaniards regained possession of it in the folowing year, although a considerable portion indemnity remained unpaid. After the departure of the British several revolts against spanish authority occurred. In 1823 a body of native troops rose in rebellion and unsue resafully tried to seize the capital and place their captain at the head of the government. Other uprisings followed, among which may be mentioned one in Cebu in 1827 and one in Negros in 1844. The latter is said to have been due to the Governor compelling State prisoners to work for his private advantage. The most formidable insurrection before that of 1896 broke out at Cavité in 1872. A conspiracy had been formed not only at the arsenal but also in the capital, and it had been agreed that when the opportune moment arrived the Manila contingent should give the signal by discharging a rocket. The Cavité insurgents misook fireworks sent up at a local celebration for the expected notification, and began opera tions prematurely. They were forced to retire to the arsenal, and eventually all were killed or captured. Hostility to the Spanish friars was at the bottom of this uprising. A cer tain Dr. Burgos had headed a party which demanded fulfilment of the decision the Council of Trent prohibiting friars from holding parishes. The provision had never been carried out in the Philippines. It is believed that the monastic orders were the in tigators of this revolt, desiring to involve Burgos and his followers in treasonable trans ections, and thus bring about their death. However this may have been, it is certain that

Our author says that the revolt of 1896 was to him no surprise, for, during the years 1800-73. while travelling in the archipelago, he heard everywhere the mutterings that go before a storm. Repeated on all sides were the old complaints of compulsory military service; of taxes too heavy to be borne, while imprison-ment or deportation, with confiscation of property, was meted out to those who could not pay

the execution of the ringleaders took place.

them; of justice withheld from all except those could afford to buy it; of crue extortion by the friars in the more luded districts; of wives and daughters ruined; of the inordinate cost of the maringe ceremony; of the refusal of burial to the dead except upon payment of a substantial sum in advance; of the withholding of opportunities for education, and of the small ouragement afforded to industry and economy, since to acquire wealth meant to become a target for officials and friars alike; these and other wrongs had goaded the natives and the half-castes, until they were stung to desperation. We need not here dwell at any length upon the early successes of the rebels in 1896; their subsequent retreat to the mountains; the fearful mortality caused by the climate among the Spanish troops sent against them, or their ultimate pacification by promises of reform and by the bribing of their leader. These things are all matters of common knowledge. as well as the failure of the Governor-General o carry out his promises, which caused a fresh revolt that was rapidly assuming dangerous proportions, when Admiral Dewey's victory over the Spanish fleet, gave it such an impetus as no other uprising in the Philippines has had

IV. We pass to a chapter dealing exclusively with uzon, which, with its 42,000 square miles includes more than a third of the aggregate land area of the Philippine Islands. In northern portion are extensive chains of lofty nountains. There are also a number of vol canic peaks, active and extinct, and Prof. Worcester tells us that the world does not con tain a more perfect cone than that of the Mayon volcano in Albay province. It rises to height of nearly ten thousand feet, and from every point of view its outline is perfect. Tabl. on the other hand, is one of the lowest active roleanes known; it is now but 900 feet high. its whole top having been blown off during a terrific eruption in 1749. The river and lake systems of Luzon are second in importance only to those of Mindanao. The Rio Grande de Cagayan rises in the South Caraballo Moun tains, near the centre of the Island, and empties at its extreme northern end, after drain ing an immense area. The soil throughout its valley is extraordinarily fertile, producing the best tobacco grown in the archipelago. The Rio Grande de la Pampanga also rises in the South Caraballo range, but flows in the oppo alte direction, emptying into Manila Bay by more than twenty mouths. The low ground along its banks produces good crops of rice and sugar cane. Among other considerable streams n Luzon may be mentioned the Bio Agno and the Blool. The Laguna de Bay, distant but a few miles from the capital, is probably the largest body of fresh water in the archipelago although some of the Mindanao lakes approach it closely in size. Its greatest length is 25 miles and its greatest breadth 21. It empties into Manila Bay by the Pasig River which separates the newer portion of the city from the old. Lake Bombon, from the centre of which rises the Taal volcano, measures 14 by 11 miles. The population Luzon, roughly estimated at 5,000,000, is divided into numerous tribes, of which the Tagals, or Tagalogs, and the Hocanos are the most important. Both of these races are civilized and, as a rule, orderly, although brigandage is incommon in the Tagal territory. There are a few Negritos left in Marideles Mountain near the mouth of Manila Bay, and in th vicinity of Cape Engaño they are still quite numerous. They are commonly believed to be the true aborigines of the Philippines, but even at the outset of the Spanish conquest. they were getting the worst of it in their struggle with the Malay invaders. They are de scribed as a sickly race, of almost dwarfish stature; their skins are black, their hair is curly, their features are coarse and repulsive They practice agriculture but little, living shiefly on the fruits and tubers which they find in the forest and on the game which they bring down with poisoned arrows. Some of the remaining wild tribes in Luzon are of pure Malay extraction, and others are, apparently, half-breeds, between Malays and Negritos; one of the Igorrote peoples is believed to be de scended from the followers of the Chinese invader Limahong. The word "Igorrote," which was originally the name of a single tribe, was extended to include all the head-hunting peoples of Luzon, and later became almost synonyous with wild, so that when one uses the term to-day he refers to a number of flerce hill tribes which differ more or less inter se. Head-hunting is practiced with especial zest by the Gaddanes, but is for the most part confined to the season when the firetree is in bloom. It is said to be impossible for a young man of this tribe to find a bride until he has at least one nead to his credit. There are a number of other head-hunting peoples, among whom

Prof. Worcester made two visits to the island of Mindanao, which is nearly as large as Pennsylvania. Until recently next to nothing was known of its interior, but the priests of the Jesuit mission have persistently pushed explorations until they have gathered data for a fairly complete and accurate map. They recog nize in the island twenty-four distinct tribes. of which seventeen are pagan and six Moham medan (Moro), while the remainder are Christian Visayans, who have migrated from the Visaya group and settled at various points in Mindanao, especially along the north coast Most of the wild tribes are of Malay origin, but there still remain a considerable number of the little black Negritos, with whom some of the Malays have intermarried. The warlike Moros are dreaded. They are found along the southern and southwestern coasts and near the large rivers and inland lakes. Although the island is nominally divided into provinces. Spanish control is, as a matter of fact, effective only in narrow and more or less isolated strips along the sea and near a few of the rivers, which afford the only means of communication with the interior. There are no roads, and the futility of attempting to move troops inland was demonstrated by Gen. Weyler during our author's second visit,

may be mentioned the Altasanes and Apayaos.

Not all of the wild peoples, however, are war-

like, the Tinguianes, for example, being a

eaceable, well-disposed race

The scenery in Mindanao is described as particularly fine. Extinct volcances are numerous, and there are several active ones, the most famous of which is Mount Apo, which rises to a height of 10,312 feet. Extensive areas are covered with magnificent trees, and, apart from the valuable forest products which findanso has in common with several of the other islands, gutta percha is abundant in several localities. The largest known flower, measuring some three feet in diameter, ha been discovered there. As might be inferred from its name, which signifies "man of the lake," Mindanao is well watered. Its rivers are more important than those of Luzon. Th Butuan rises within a few miles of the south coast, and, running north, traverses the whole island. The Rio Grande, on the other hand, takes its rise near the north coast, and flows south and west. Considerable lakes are connected with both these streams, while Lake Lanao, situated where the western peninsula ioins the main body of the island, empties inte the sea by the River Agus. The soil, especially in the river and lake regions, is enormously productive. Little is known of the mineral realth, but it is certain that gold exists i paying quantities at a number of points. Diggings have long been worked by the petives near Misamis and Surigao.

After landing at Zamboanga, the oldest of the Spanish settlements in Mindanao, our author's party proceeded to Ayals, which may garded as the type of the villages of decent civilized natives under Spanish control. Such a village has a church, a convento or priest's ise, and a tribunale, which is a sort of town hall, where the head men meet to transact ousiness. It is frequently used as a barracks for troops and as a lodging house for travel lers, who have a right to put up there, and who usually find hanging on the wall a list of the proper local prices for rice, fowls, aggs, meat and other articles of food, as well as for horse hire, buffalo hire, carriers, &c. A very imper-

tant personage in every Philippine town or village in the Gobernadorcillo, or "Little Gov-He is always a native or mestize (halfbreed), and is the local representative of the Governor of his province, from whom he receives instructions and to whom he sends reports. His headquarters are senda reporta. He is addressed as at the tribunale. at the tribunale. He is addressed as Capitan during his term of office, and, after his successor has been chosen, is known as a Capitan Pasado. He settles all local questions, except those which assume serious legal aspect, and, therefore, belong to the Justice of the Peace; but his most important duty is to see that the taxes of his town are collected, and to turn them over to the admin fstrator of the province. He is personally re sponsible for these taxes, and must obtain the from his cabezas, or make good the deficit The families of every town are divided into groups of from 40 to 60, each under a "Cabeza angay," who, if he cannot get the taxes from the people, must pay them out of his own socket. For obvious reasons, men of means are chosen for this position, and, though nom nally elected every two years, they are actually kept in office as long as they have anything to ose. Prof. Worcester has seen cabezas suffer confiscation of property and deportation, because they could not pay debts which they did

not owe. The Gobernadorello is obliged to

ald the Guardia Civil in the capture of crimi-

nals, and to assist the parish friar in promoting the interests of the Church; often, also. In advancing the friar's private ends The "Little Governor," moreover, is at the beck and call of all the officials who may chance to risit his town. He has to entertain them at his own expense, and not infrequently finds i advisable to make them presents. He is liable at any time to be summoned to the capital of the province, but he receives no compensation for the cost of travelling or loss of time. If he does not speak Spanish he must employ There is a great deal of writing to be done at the tribunale, and as the allowance for lerk hire is usually insufficient, the Gobernadorcillo must make up the difference. In return for all this he is allowed a salary of \$: per month and permitted to carry a cane. If he does not squeeze his fellow townsmen or steal public funds he is apt to come out badly Nevertheless, as there is nothing quite so dear to the average Philippine native as a little authority over his fellows, the post tion, in spite of its numerous drawbacks, in some places eagerly sought. We should add that the "Little Governor" has a Ministry, consisting of the first and second tenientes. lieutenants), who take his place in his absence, other tenientes having charge of outlying districts, and chiefs of police, plantations and cattle. A man who has been elected Gobernadoreillo or Teniente, or who has served ten venre as a Cabera de Barangay is num. pered among the "head men" of the place who meet at the tribunale from time to time and discuss public affairs with gravity. They as semble also every Sunday morning and, headed by the "Little Governor." and frequently also by a band playing lively airs, they march to the convento, or priest's house, and escort the frian to the church, where they all attend mass. The state dress which they wear on such occasions is described as picturesque. Their white shirts dangle outside of their trousers, after the Philippine fashion, and over them they wea tight-fitting jackets without tails which reach barely to their waists. When the jacket is buttoned it causes the shirt to stand out in a frill, roducing a grotesque effect. Never did the visitors fail to be touched by

the hospitality of the villagers. The Christianized native seems always ready to kill his last lowl for a stranger, or share with him his last not of rice. When Prof. Worcester's party stopped at a hut and asked for a drink, its inmates were loath to offer them water in the coccanut shell cups which served their own purpose, but hunted up and washed old tumblers, or even sent to a neighbor's to borrow them. With a glass of water they always gave lump of panoche, coarse brown sugar, that the r, as they expressed it, might thirst." The houses at Ayala were found to be like those of the poorer civilized native through out the archipelago. The typical Philippine which are firmly set in the ground. The floor s raised from five to ten feet into the air. There is not a nail or a peg in the whole struc The frame is of bamboo, tied together with rattan. The sides and roof are usually of neps palm, although the former may be made by splitting green bamboos, pounding the halves flat, and then weaving them together; while, if nips is very scarce, the roof may be thatched with the long grass called cogon. The floor is usually made of bamboo strips with their convex sides up; they are tied firmly in place, but in such a way that wide cracks are left between them. The windows are provided with swinging shades, which can be propped open during the day. You have to climb a ladder to ente the house. Frequently there is but one room or cooking, eating, and sleeping. The cooking is done over an open fire built on a hear of earth n one corner, and the house is often rendered almost uninhabitable by smoke. In the bette iwellings there is a place partitioned off for cooking, usually at the head of the ladde while the body of the house is divided into two or more rooms. Prof. Worcester says that native dwellings of this latter sort have much o recommend them. The ventilation is per ect, and the air is kept much cooler than in lightly closed building. Moreover, if such abrics are shaken down by an earthquake, o blown down by a typhoon, no one gets hurt for the materials used are too light to do harn when they fall. It seems that rich native sometimes build houses of boards with galva sized iron roofs and limestone foundations, bu they are very much more expensive, and ar pronounced decidedly less comfortable than the

VI. During his second visit to Mindanao on author saw a good deal of the Moros, or Mohammeden Malays, who have played an im portant part in the history of the Philippines They entered the archipelago from Borneo jus at the time of the Spanish discovery. They first landed in Basilan, but rapidly apread over he small lalands of the Sulu and Tawi Tawi groups, and eventually occupied the coast of Mindanao, as well as Cagayan, Sulu Balabas and the southern third of Talawan Before they could complete the conquest of the ast-named island they had their first serious collision with Spanish troops, and they have not since been able to extend their territory but most of what they had already taken they have continued to hold. Hostili-ties between the Spaniards and the Moror were precipitated through an unprovoked at-tack by the former on one of the Moro chiefs in north Mindanao. The attacking force was lmost annihilated, and the fanatical passion of the Moslem warriors were thoroughly groused. They forthwith began to organize orays against the Christianized native coas owns of the central and porthern islands from the outset they met with great success and their piratical expeditions soon became an nual events. With each recurring southeast monsoon hordes of Moros manned their war raus and salled for the north, where they sarried the coast, butchered the men and made aptives of women and children, until changing winds warned them to turn their face

humbler dwellings of bamboo and nips palm

For two and a half centuries this state of af fairs continued. Emboldened by continued es, the Moros did not confine their atten ion to defenceless natives. Spanish planters and even Government officials were killed an ald for ransom. The special delight of the Moslem warriors was to capture the Spanish priests and friars, toward whom they displayed the bitterest hatred, a feeling that was reciprocated by the churchmen. The Spanlards, on their part, did not tamely submit to such incursions. Expedition after expedition was organized against the Moros. Millions of dollars and thousands of lives were wasted Temporary successes would be gained, but they resulted in no permanent advantage. On several occasions landings were made on Sulu itself, the residence of

were, eventually, massacred or driven from the island. The steel weapons of the Moros were of excellent quality, and for many years they were really better armed than were the soldiera sent against them. But such cannon and rifles as they possessed were antiquated, and the gradual improvement in firearms brought to the Spanfards an advantage in which the Mores did not share to any great extent. It was not, however, until the day of light draught steam gunboats and rapid-fire guns that piracy was finally checked. An efficient patrol of gunboats was at last established The Moro praus were forbidden to put to sea without a written permit from the neares Spanish Governor, and were ordered to fly the Spanish fing. When a prau was encountered that did not show the fing or could not produce a passport it was rammed and cut in two, or sunk by the fire of machineguns. No quarter was given. As opportuni-ties offered, the gunboats would shell the villages which were built over the sea, and a could be easily reached. The town of Sulu, which had always been the seat of the More Government, and the residence of the reigning Sultan, was destroyed in 1870, and a Spanish military post was established in its place. A first the Moros had the habit of dropping in and desimating the garrison, but this was con stantly reinforced, and from 1876 to the present day Spanish occupation has been nearly continuous. Other points in Mindanso, Basilan. Sulu and Tawi Tawi were taken and fortified Many of the coast villages were burned, and the inhabitants driven inland, until, finally, sort of armed truce prevailed. Such was the condition of affairs on the south coast of Min danso and in the smaller neighboring islands

the Moro Sultan; forts were built there

and garrisons established; but the troops

at the time of Prof. Worcester's visit. Before taking leave of this book, we would say a word about Cebu, partly because the island occupies an important strategic position in the centre of the archipelago, and partly be cause the Germans are said to have desired t acquire it. The island itself is somewhat smaller than our State of Delaware. As being the site of the first Spanish settlement in the Philippines, the town of Cebu is a place of conderable historic interest. Up to 1571 it was the capital of the colony, and up to 1750 it continued to have a municipal government, which was then abolished because there was but one Spaniard in the place capable of being a city soundillor. The municipal government was not restored until 1800. The city is on the east coast of the island, a little north of its centre. The population at the time of our author's visit was computed at 10,000. The own was clean and well built, and what is unusual in the Philippines, fairly good carriage roads led out from it for some distance in sev eral directions. Churches were numerous and conspicuous. Besides the cathedral there is a chapel of the Jesuits and a church of San Nicolas; but more famous than the others is the Church of Santo Nifio de Cebu, built n honor of the most ancient and famous of the miraculous images of the Philippines. The Santo Nifio was found on the shore f the island by a soldier in 1565, and was adjudged by competent authorities to be an image of the Christ Child which had allen from heaven. At the time of Prof. Worester's visit it was guarded in the strong com of the Augustinian convento, but could be seen by permission of the friar. It is of abony, measures about fifteen inches in height, and is half covered by silver trinkets which have been presented to it from time to time. In January of each year a feast is given in its onor, to attend which pilgrims come from all over the archipelago. It is then exposed to sublic view in the church and receives the onors paid to a field marshal. We observe hally, that Cebu is not only a Dishop's see, but also the residence of a Governor and of a General of Brigade, commanding the Governors of all the Visaya Islands, the largest of which are Samar, Panay, Leyte and Negros.

Food and Feeding.

Those who believe that the art of cooking hould be studied and practiced from a scien tifle point of view will do well to look at the revised and enlarged edition of Food and Feed ng, by Sir HENRY THOMPSON (Frederick Warne & Co.). Since this volume originally appeared ome twenty years ago, scientific research has added something to our knowledge of the digestive processes as well as to our knowledge of the value to man of certain food principle There have been improvements, also, in the appliances and methods adopted for preparation of a wholesome and agreeable diet. It is as true, too, of the United States as it is of England that the selection of food and the adaptation of it for the table are now much more widely understood than they were when Sir Henry Thompson first undertook to discuss the subject. We observe that in one of his early chapters

the author not only dwells on the important mastication, but assigns a reason for the careful practice of it which is sometimes over ooked. The process of chewing has a special relation to the great classes of cereal foods and obers. We are reminded that the act of mastieation by means of the teeth and tongue exerte an influence of two kinds on food during its transit through the mouth. There is first, of course, the mechanical process whereby all solid substances are finely divided before the are swallowed. Such a division of fibres is essential to good digestion; food thus broken up can be acted upon easily when it arrives in the stomach, where it is exposed to the chemica action of the gastrie juice and of prolonged. noist heat at a temperature of about 98°. This mechanical division is the sole effect produced by mastication upon flesh. Another effect is produced in the case of a different class of foods. the carbo-hydrates, mainly composed of starch, which include all kinds of bread potatoes and farinaceous puddings. By means of the saliva poured out during the process of chewing, and f the peculiar principle, "ptyalin," which the saliva contains, a specific digestive action takes place on the starch while still within the mouth. Naturally insoluble in water, the tarch is converted by the saliva into a soluble material called glucose, and thus prepared for absorption into the system. All starched should have undergone this change through proper amount of mastication before they artes in the stomach. Any failure in the process converting starch into glucose which may have occurred through hasty or inefficient nastication cannot be remedied until after the food has left the stomach and entered the firs ntestine, where it meets with the juices of the pancreas, which complete the process. Sir Henry Thompson points out that children bould be taught to practice prolonged mast eation, not only in eating meat, where it is really of less consequence, but especially in the case of soft food, such as potatoes, bread, and

arinaceous puddings. While the author is no vegetarian, he is convinced that more fleen is consumited Kingdom part of the inhabitants of the United Kingdom part of the inhabitants of the United Kingdom than is either necessary or desirable. pecially is this the case among those who pos eas ample means, and whose vocations do no demand great muscular exertion or exposure all weathers, or, in other words, do not sul est the animal tissues to wear and tear. Where great doal of exercise is taken, or where nanual labor is hard and prolonged, the con centrated and easily digested proteids of fiesi are the most valuable food for man's purpose Where there is but little physical a maller proportion of these is advisable, and petter state of bodily health may be assured l sating not beef or mutton, but those forms o nimal food which are less rich in proteids and especially in fat, such as fish, poultry and game, for instance. To sedentary per sons a considerable proportion of vegetable products is also recommended. Theoretically, indeed, the rigorous vegetarian can find in nis dietary all the principles adapted for the growth and support of the body, as well as for he production of heat and energy. The vege table products, however, must be selected with care in order that the total sum of food consumed per diem may not become too bulky; otherwise one may have to swallow and digest

an inordinate weight of vegetable matter con-

taining at least one necessary element in large excess for the sake of obtaining all the elements he needs. Thus the Irishman, if he were confined solely to a diet of potatoes, which consist chiefly of starch, would require for his support from twelve to fifteen pounds daily in order to get a barely sufficient quantity of nitrogen, whereof this tuber contains very little. It is also to be noted that in potatoes there is scarcely any fat. Hence the Irishman makes good the deficiency, when can, with milk, lard, bacon or rings. The Highlander, living mainly or oatmeal, requires a very much smaller weight, because this grain contains not only starch. but a moderate amount of nitrogen and fat, al though not sufficient for his purpose. The oat meal is supplemented with milk, and, where it is practicable, with fish and bacon. As regards the quantity of food that should be con sumed in twenty-four hours, the author concurs with Dr. F. W. Pavy in recommending 23 ounces of dry, solid food for a person of average height and weight who is exposed to temperate climate, and who performs a moder ate amount of muscular work. Of the dry, solid matter about 14 ounces are assigned to carbo hydrates, 4% to proteids, 3 to fatty matter and l ounce to salts. It is further to be noted that, as our ordinary food contains about 50 per cent of water, these 23 ounges correspond to 46 ounces of nutriment in the condition in which it is usually consumed. To complet the alimentary ingests, an additional quantity of from 50 to 80 ounces of water should be taken under some form or other daily.

Sir Henry Thompson has a good deal to say about the slow process of cooking. It has long been known that for the purpose of cooking flesh thoroughly it is needless to maintain s high a temperature as that employed by the ordinary methods of roasting or boiling The time of exposure to the lower degree of heat must, however, be considerably prolonged There is in most cookery books a table indicat ing the time which every joint requires, based on its weight; but this table presupposes the boiling point of water to begin with, and the maintenance of the water at that temperature by a continual combustion of fuel. The flavo of animal food is much better when it is pre pared by the system of prolonged low tempera tures, and the meat is rendered more tende and more digestible, results which, in the av thor's opinion, must tend to bring the practice o slow cooking into favor. That flesh so treated is easily digested is due to the fact that at the temperature of 170° to 180°, the albunion con tained therein, while sufficiently cooked is no overheated and hardened. Any temperature higherthan the above-named tends to solidif the albumen, and, when exposed to too much heat, as often happens to a fried or over-broiled steak, the flesh becomes diminished in thickness and curved, instead of being plump and tender, while the shrunken and indurated fibres of the over-cooked portion are difficul of digestion by an average stomach. For the Norwegian cooking apparatus, which is de scribed at length, about eighteen or twenty hours are required, but the temperature of th warm water jacket, although originally at boiling point, is allowed gradually to decline t about 80° or 90°. This process is recom mended for fowls and mutton. In a chapter on soup making the proper dis

inction is drawn between the pot-au-feu and the "stock-pot." The pot-au-feu is a composit. dish which produces, first, a simple but not strong beef broth (bouillon), well flavored by fresh vegetables; secondly, a somewhat overcooked and exhausted piece of beef (bouilli which is served after the soup; and, lastly, the vegetables themselves. This is a differen thing from the common "stock-pot" of the French peasant, so frequently termed a pot au-feu, and confounded with it. The primary object of a "stock-pot" is to make a decoction or basis for soup. It should be formed of animal food, if possible; to that end every morse of flesh and poultry and such trimmings from joints and bones well bruised as are available for the purpose are reserved for it. To the po of the French peasant, who wastes absolutely nothing, all things are welcome; every atom of nutritive material, solid or liquid, goes into it, to which are added herbs and vegetables, together with the liquor in which any o the latter may chance to have been boiled Sometimes it is a pot maigre, no meat of any kind having been procurable; very good vegetable soups, however, are deducible therefrom At times, too, instead of the slices of bread which are usually put into the broth when served, the peasant's wife will clean a fresh cabbage, boil it in water, which is carefully preserved, and then put the cabbage for a few minutes into her pot. The true pot-au-feu, on the other hand, has for its object, as we have said, not only the making of a well-

on the other hand, has for its object, as we have said, not only the making of a well-flavored beef broth, but the cooking of a portion of the beef, to be eaten separately, either cold or hot, together with the vegetables associated with it. Formerly this bouild always appeared at an ordinary French table immediately after the bouildn, but, of late years, it has tended to disappear.

The author of this book denounces the practice that was formerly so common in England of drinking wine after dinner. He insists that no alcoholic beverages should be served after the repast, except a small glass of copnac. As regards the order of wines atdinner, Nir Henry Thompson recommends a glass of light, pale sherry or dry sauterne after soun, a delicate rhine wine or Moselle after fish, a glass of good bordeaux with the joint; a dry, but not brut champague with the entrées, and the best red wine in the cellar, either bordeaux or burgundy, with the game. With the ice or dessert a glass of full-flavored or matured champagne or a liqueur may be served. We are cautioned, however, that both temperance and digestion are promoted by the avoidance of much mixing of red and white, or, indeed, of any wines at meals, From a hygienic point of view, the more prudent course is to drink either a fine bordeaux or a choice, dry champagne, and to serve only the one wine throughout the dinner. Our author, for his part, is convinced that those who drink water with their dinner enjoy the pleasure of eating more than do those who drink wine. Travellers on the Coutinent of Europe are admonished never to drink water, unleas they can procure the natural mineral table waters, such as the St. Gaimiler, in France; Seltzers or Apollinaris, in Germany, and Gleshtbel, in Austria The table waters, bowever, which are imported into England and the United States are pronounced inferior to the affarted, distilled waters which are prepared at home.

Daniel D. Tompkins.

Among the historical materials recently pubished by the State of New York is a volume containing the Military Papers of Daniel D. Tompkins, to which an interesting and useful introduction has been prefixed by Mr. Hugh Hastings, the State historian. There is no doubt that Gov. Tompkins played well nigh as mportant a part in the second war against Great Britain as had been taken by Robert Morris in the Revolutionary war. It is also rue that the services rendered to the American cause by the State of New York and by the war Governor of that State have not as yet, been adequately set forth. In one of the works purporting to deal with that contest the name of Gov. Tompkins is mentioned but once and then incidentally. It was certainly high time that records so valuable as those presented in the Tompkins papers should be rendered accessible; for, considered as a bla ory of the State of New York from 1807 to 1817, the collection is unique. Not only Gov. Tompkins believed to have written his own State papers, but all military orders issued luring his administration, except those of a routine kind, were drawn by his hand. The state obtained possession of the collection in 1885, but only those papers which are devote exclusively to military subjects are published n the volume before us. In order to render intelligible the biographical as well as historieal bearing of these documents, Mr. Hastings has prepared a sketch of Gov. Tompkins's life. which covers over one hundred pages, which no student of the history of the State during the earlier part of this century is likely to overlook. Daniel D. Tompkins was born at the Fox Meadows, Scarsdale, Westchester county. N. Y., on June 21, 1774. He was the seventh son of Jonathan Tompkins, one of the three loyal Americans who lived in that part of West-

chester county during the war of the Revolu

hood to the roughest kind of work, young

Tompkins, nevertheless, succeeded in acquir-

ing education enough to enable him to enter

Columbia College, from which he graduated in 1795. Two years later he was admitted to the

Born on a farm, and inured from child

bar. Before reaching his majority he had taken an eager part in the warm political raged between the Federalists tests that then and the Republicans. It will be bered that, three years after the adoption of the Federal Constitution, the centralization in government who believed in a strict construction of the organic laws framed at Philadelphia, crystal. lized into the Republican party. The Federals ists, who favored centralization and a lax equ struction of the Constitution, stigmatized their opponents as Democrats for their imputed sympathy with the Jacobins or Democrats of he French revolation; the Republicans, in re taliation, termed the Federalists "aristocrats," From 1790 to 1799 political excitement in creased from year to year. The Federalists were, for a time, triumphant in New York city, controlling six out of the seven wards of which t was then composed. The property restrict tion in the elective franchise gave the eralists a great advantage. In the chartes election of 1799 the Republicans succeeded in carrying two wards, against five tained by the Federalists. In the next year the former summoned their resources for a desive effort, and succeeded in carrying also the Fifth Ward, of which Tompkins was a resident. But the victory was a barren one, as the votes east by him and his friends were thrown out on the ground that the "Tontine" association founded by them was contrary to the prin lples of the city charter. Yet although the Republicans lost control of the City Council, hey were victorious in the State, and elected, as Governor, George Clinton, who had been the first Chief Magistrate of the State, and who had served as such continuously from 1777 to 1795

The "Farmer's Boy," as Tompkins was then

popularly called, represented the Ninth New York district in the Assembly of 1803 In April of the next year he was elected to Congress, but resigned his seat before Congress convened, in order to accept the position f Judge of the Supreme Court, which honor had been bestowed upon him by the Council of Appointment. The Judgeship in turn hereinquished upon being nominated for Governor by the Republicans in caucus on Feb. 16, 1807. He was a compromise candidate between De Witt Clinton and Judge Ambrose Spencer. It was charged by his opponents that he was selected from the belief that he would be a plastic tool in their hands, but, as Mr. Hastings points out, no evidence has ever been produced to show that Messrs. Clinton and Spencer were governed by any such purpose ominating Tompkins. He was elected and took his seat as Governor in January, 1808 following year the Federalista returned a majority of the members of Assembly, and, a year later, through the treachery of a Republican Senator. cured control of the Council of Appointment, The Governor now found himself in precisely the same position which Gov. Jay had occupied nine years before; that is to say, the opposite party was preponderant in the council wherein he had only a casting vote. The po-litical difference between the Council of Appointment and the Governor might have proved a serious matter on the outbreak of the war of 1812 had a man of less resolution than Tompkins been in the Governor's chair. During his four years' service at the head of the State executive, Tompkins had become thoroughly equipped for the arduous responsibilities that were to devolve upon him. When he found, therefore, that the Council of Appointment was bestowing commissions upon Federalists alone, he refused to assign the officers thus appointed to command, and, by the liberal distribution of "brevets." delegated to duty in the field officers of his own political faith. Even during his first term of office Gov. Tompkins's speeches to the Legislature had

welt upon the serious condition of our national affairs and the danger of embroliment war with either France or Great Britain, His address dated Jan. 30, 1810, contained an emphatic indorsement of President Madison's foreign policy, but this the Federalists, who commanded a majority of the Assembly, refused to ratify. On Feb. 5, 1810, Gov. Tompcins was renominated in the Republican caucus without a dissenting voice, and at the polis his majority over Gen. Stephen Van Rensselaer. his Federalist opponent, was between 6,000 and 7,000 votes. He was now the leader of the Republican party in the State, De Witt Clinton being his most dangerous rival. When the Madison Administration desired during its first term, the influence of the Republican party in New York, Tompkins was consulted, nor was a guid pro quo ever withheld from him when the assistance of the Federal Administration was needed by him in the State. President Madison sent his war mes-sage to Congress June 1, 1812, and, seventeen days later, war was declared against Great Britain. Before the contest had continued a year, the fact was demonstrated that Gov.
Tompkins was the most conspicuous and the strongest character which the crisis had brought forth. In his annual speech at the extra session of the Legislature in November. 1812, he suggested that a loan should be made by the State of New York to the National Government, in order to inaugurate a vigorous prosecution of the struggle. A resolution to that effect was passed through the State Senate, but killed by the Federalists in the House. On Feb. 4, 1813, Gov. Tompkins was again nominated and in the ensuing election once more defeated Gen. Stephen Van Rensselser, in spite of the opposition of De Witt Clinton and his friends, who openly repudlated the candidate of their party, being prompted thereto by the suspicion that the Governor had prevented Clinton's nomination to the Presidency. The Federalists continued to control the lower house of the State Legislature and effectually checked every recommendation and project which the Governor and his friends proposed for the defence of the State and the support of the National Administration. Finally, in September of the year last named, the Governor raised, on his own responsibility, a large sum of money, which he used in purchasing

tember of the year last named, the Governor raised, on his own responsibility, a large sum of money, which he used in purchasing arms and equipments for the troops and in improving the defences of the State. Within a brief time 12,000 soldiers had been mobilized and placed in the fortifications. At his request the President appointed him the commander of the Third Military district, and, after the burning of the Capitol at Washington, offered him the portfolio of the State Department. This latter compliment was declined by Tompkins on the ground that he could be more useful in the State of New York.

At the expiration of Madison's second term in the White House Gov, Tompkins aspired to the Presidency, and a resolution was unanimously adopted in February, 1818, by the Hepublican members of the New York Legislature instructing the Senators and Representatives of that State in Congress to take all proper means to secure his nomination. In the caucus which was held on March 18 James Monroe of Virginia proved the successful candidate and Gov. Tompkins received the nomination for Vice-President. It was believed that his well-known hostility to slavery prejudiced the Southern members of Congress against him; it is certain that he obtained in the caucus not a single vote from the States south of the Potomac. Although chosen Vice-President of the United States, Judge Tompkins continued to exercise the functions of the office of Governor until the close of February, 1817, when he resigned. The most serious trouble of his life now began. When he took his oath of office as Vice-President his sociunts with the State had not been settled, and on the ledgers of the Comptroller's office he was made to appear as a defaulter to the amount of \$120,000. In 1820 he was again a candidate for Governor of New York, but was defeated by DeWitt Clinton. In the last-named spar, however, he was release to the State of his claim for commissions. As late as 1847 the Federal Government was indebted to him to the amount of \$20,000. In 1820 he